

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 248 970

PS 014 584

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TITLE Developmental Changes in the Influence of Sex-Role Stereotypes on Person Perception.
PUB DATE May 84
NOTE 15p.; From a paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Midwestern Psychological Association (Chicago, IL, May 3-5, 1984).
PUB TYPE Reports - Research/Technical (143) -- Speeches/Conference Papers (150)
EDRS PRICE MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Age Differences; Elementary School Students; Elementary Secondary Education; High School Students; *Individual Development; Junior High School Students; *Sex Differences; *Sex Stereotypes
IDENTIFIERS *Developmental Patterns; Person Perception

ABSTRACT

This study examines the reactions of children and adolescents to stories about fictional boys and girls who act across three behavioral episodes in either masculine-stereotyped or feminine-stereotyped ways. Trait dimensions chosen for investigation were: (1) logical and steady versus excitable and emotional; (2) adventurous and risk-taking versus timid and cautious; and (3) rude versus polite. Three pairs of vignettes were developed to convey the six stereotyped traits. Participating were 51 third and fourth graders, 51 seventh and eighth graders, and 48 eleventh and twelfth graders. In the study both the target's gender and the target's behavior were manipulated such that each subject heard all three masculine or all three feminine vignettes, the protagonist for which was either a girl or a boy. After each of the three vignettes was read to the subject, a six-point Likert scale item was administered to assess liking for the target's behavior. Trait perceptions were measured through a yes-no checklist of 24 sex-stereotyped adjectives. Finally, a true-false memory test consisting of 24 statements about things that might have been done or said in the vignettes was administered. Behavior was by far the most powerful influence on liking, masculine-feminine trait inferences, and masculine-feminine memory bias. However, third and fourth graders tended to like children whose behavior was sex-appropriate better than those whose behavior was sex-inappropriate; seventh and eighth graders tended to prefer sex-inappropriate targets; and eleventh and twelfth graders showed the greatest concern with sex-role conformity. Liking, trait inference, and memory bias were closely interrelated only in later adolescence. (Author/RH)

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ED248970

DEVELOPMENTAL CHANGES IN THE INFLUENCE OF SEX-ROLE
STEREOTYPES ON PERSON PERCEPTIONX

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XThe authors wish to thank the staff and students of the Model Laboratory School
and Laura Epperson for their help. Portions of this paper were presented at the
meeting of the Midwestern Psychological Association, Chicago, May 1984.
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Running Head: Sex-Roles Person Perception

PS 014584

Abstract

Boys and girls in grades 3-4, 7-8, and 11-12 heard about boys or girls whose behavior was either masculine-stereotyped or feminine-stereotyped along dimensions of steadiness/excitability, adventurousness/timidity, and rudeness/politeness. Behavior was by far the most powerful influence on liking, masculine-feminine trait inference, and masculine-feminine memory bias. However, 3rd-4th graders tended to like children whose behavior was sex-appropriate better than those whose behavior was sex-inappropriate; 7th-8th graders tended to prefer sex-inappropriate targets; and 11th-12th graders showed the greatest concern with sex-role conformity, tolerating masculine nonconformity more than younger children did, but primarily when it was displayed by a boy. Liking, trait inference, and memory bias were also closely interrelated only in later adolescence, suggesting that sex-role schemata reemerge as a influence on person perception in this developmental period.

DEVELOPMENTAL CHANGES IN THE INFLUENCE OF SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPES ON PERSON PERCEPTION

Consistent with a view of sex-role development that emphasizes the emergence of sex-role schemata and their influence on information-processing (Martin & Halverson, 1981), young children appear to use sex-role schemata rigidly in perceiving and evaluating others. They have better memory for gender-appropriate than for gender-inappropriate information (e.g., Martin & Halverson, 1983); and they negatively evaluate individuals who violate sex-role stereotypes (see Martin & Halverson, 1981).

To what extent do sex-role schemata influence person perception in later childhood and adolescence? Stereotypes appear to be less rigidly held and more flexibly applied in older than in younger children (e.g., Carter & Patterson, 1982; Hensley & Borges, 1981). Indeed, memory bias in perceptions of male and female doctors and nurses has been found to decrease from fourth to seventh grade (Drabman, Robertson, Patterson, Jarvie, Hammer, & Cordua, 1981), and adults sometimes recall schema-inconsistent information better than schema-consistent information (Hastie & Kumar, 1979). The influence of sex-role schemata on interpersonal evaluations is both less well-researched and more complex. Emmerich and Shepard (1982), asking students in grades 4-6, 7-9, and 10-12 to express liking for boys and girls described as having sex-appropriate or sex-inappropriate interests, activities, and personality traits, found limited evidence of preference for same-sex targets in late childhood; minimal sex-bias in junior high school; and some expression of preference for sex-role-appropriate targets in high school (see also Urberg, 1979, for evidence of a return to stronger sex-role stereotyping in late adolescence than in early adolescence).

These developmental trends have been weak, limited to particular items, and especially fragile with respect to judgments of boys and girls possessing masculine-stereotyped or feminine-stereotyped personality traits. As Emmerich and Shepard (1982) themselves note, however, the outcomes might be different if children were responding to concrete descriptions of individual males or females rather than to mere trait labels. There is still much to be learned about how sex-role schemata influence memory, trait inference, and evaluation when children and adolescents are reacting to individuated males or females and about how such aspects of person perception are interrelated.

The present study examines the reactions of children and adolescents to boys and girls who behave across three behavioral episodes in either masculine-stereotyped or feminine-stereotyped ways. Following the lead of Emmerich and Shepard and others, we hypothesize that third- and fourth-graders will be relatively rigid in their application of sex-role stereotypes, displaying inferential biases and evaluative reactions that reflect a concern with conformity to sex-role expectations and possibly a preference for same-sex actors, regardless of their behavior (c.f., Albert & Porter, 1983). In early adolescence, the impact of sex-role stereotypes is expected to be minimal, while in late adolescence bias toward attributing sex-role appropriate behaviors to a target and preference for targets whose behavior is sex-appropriate are expected to reemerge.

Method

Participants

Participants ($N = 150$) attended a university-affiliated laboratory school with a student body that is predominantly white and middle-class, above average academically, and, in approximately half of the cases, from faculty or staff families. A stratified random sample representing three age groups and males and females equally consisted of 51 third- and fourth-graders (M age = 9.4); 51 seventh- and eighth-graders ($M = 13.4$); and 48 eleventh- and twelfth-graders ($M = 17.5$).

Stimuli and Independent Variables

Based on the literature on personality traits that are sex-role stereotyped in childhood (Koblinsky, Cruse, & Sugawara, 1978; Williams, Bennett, & Best, 1975), three trait dimensions were chosen for study: logical and steady vs. excitable and emotional; adventurous and risk-taking vs. timid and cautious; and rude vs. polite. Three pairs of vignettes were developed to convey these six masculine- and feminine-stereotyped traits. In a "lost book" vignette, the target child (always named "Chris") displayed masculine-stereotyped steadiness by remaining clam, thinking the problem through, and retracing his/her steps to find a lost book, while the feminine-stereotyped target despaired, could not think straight, and ran aimlessly about with tears in his/her eyes and a pounding heart. The adventurous-timid vignettes centered on discovering an old shack with a friend. The masculine "Chris" voiced a sense of adventure and climbed in the window (e.g., "There might be something interesting in there. I'm not really afraid, are you? I could use an adventure like this."). The feminine-stereotyped "Chris" expressed hesitancy and started to walk away, saying, "There might be something dangerous in there. I'm kind of afraid, aren't you? The last thing I need is an adventure like that." Finally, in the rude-polite vignettes the protagonist went to dinner at the home of a same-sex child his/her age. In the masculine version, Chris was rude and uncooperative, responding curtly to questions, failing to thank the host for refreshments, and largely ignoring him/her, while the feminine Chris was polite, cooperative, and appreciative. In the study both the target's gender and the target's behavior were manipulated such that each subject heard all three masculine or all three feminine vignettes, the protagonist for which was either a girl or a boy.

In an attempt to validate the vignettes, all six were presented to 72 students (24 at each of the three age groups under study) such that the actor's gender was unknown (e.g., "C asked C's father if C could take a very expensive book to school...."). Analysis of correct identifications of the protagonist's gender revealed an effect of masculine vs. feminine episode type, $F(1, 64) = 39.92$, $p < .0001$, and an interaction between age group and episode type, $F(2, 64) = 24.57$, $p < .0001$. At all ages, though somewhat more so among the younger subjects, the masculine episodes were highly likely to be identified as the behavior of a boy rather than a girl (mean accuracy percentages were 88.5%, 76.5%, and 74.0% at grades 3-4, 7-8, and 11-12, respectively). Feminine episodes were as readily identifiable as feminine at 7th-8th grade (72.5%) and 11th-12th grade (72.0%), but were not interpreted as feminine by the grade school children (27.0%). While subjects in the main study were exposed to all three masculine or feminine vignettes with the gender of the actor clearly identified and thus could be expected to be more likely than children in the validity check study to construct a sex-role stereotyped interpretation of the

target child, it should nonetheless be borne in mind that the elementary school children may not have interpreted the feminine episodes as feminine-stereotyped.

Dependent Measures

After each of the three episodes was read by the experimenter, a six-point Likert scale item was administered to assess liking for the target's behavior ("How much do you like or dislike the way Chris acted?", with a scale running from "dislike very much" to "like very much"). At the completion of the episodes, the same six-point scale was used to measure overall liking for the target child based on all of the information given.

Trait perceptions were measured through a yes-no checklist of 24 sex-stereotyped adjectives selected from Williams et al. (1975) and Koblinksy et al. (1978). Included were 12 masculine-stereotyped traits, half of which were directly related to the vignettes (e.g., rude) and half of which were not (e.g., cruel, noisy), and 12 feminine traits, again half vignette-relevant and half not. An overall measure of masculine vs. feminine typification of the target child represented the number of masculine traits checked minus the number of feminine traits checked. Thus a score of +12 represented extreme masculine typification (corrected for attribution of opposite-sex traits); a score of -12 extreme attribution of feminine traits; and 0 a balance of masculine and feminine attributions.

Finally, a true-false memory test consisted of 24 statements about things that might have been done or said in the vignettes. Six items that were true of the masculine-behaving target and six that were true of the feminine-behaving target served as a check on attentiveness to the vignettes. The key items were six masculine-stereotyped and six feminine-stereotyped behaviors that could have occurred in the episodes but did not in fact (e.g., a masculine stereotyped item about the lost book episode asked if Chris said, "This can't shake me up."). The memory bias score paralleled the masculine-feminine trait attribution score, representing the number of false masculine items minus the number of false feminine items endorsed (range = +6 to -6, with overall recall controlled).

Procedure and Design

Participants were randomly assigned to groups of three same-sex peers, each of which was randomly assigned to a target behavior condition (masculine- or feminine-stereotyped), a target gender condition, and an experimenter (one male vs. one female). Moreover, order of presentation of the three episodes was randomly determined for each group. Groups participated after completing an unrelated person perception task, being informed that the study concerned reactions to other students based on examples of their behavior obtained from parents, teachers, and other sources. Participants were prevented from talking aloud and could not see one another's forms; experimenters followed a standard script and read all items orally as participants wrote their responses.

Analyses took the form of $2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 3$ analyses of variance with the following factors: target's behavior (M or F), target's gender (M or F), subject's gender (M or F), experimenter identity (M or F), and age group (3rd-4th, 7th-8th, and 11th-12th grades). Scheduling difficulties resulted in less than perfect equality of cell sizes. Follow-up analyses that provided the basis for reporting significant trends included F tests for simple effects and Newman-Keuls tests on the age dimension ($p < .05$).

Results

Effectiveness of the Manipulation of Target's Behavior

Participants were highly attentive to the vignettes. On six true-false items that were true of the masculine-behaving target, those exposed to that target averaged 5.49 correct (vs. .56 among those exposed to the feminine-behaving target); on six items true of the feminine-behaving target, mean numbers correct were 5.31 and .57 for the feminine behavior and masculine behavior conditions, respectively. Memory was equally accurate across age groups. Moreover, with one exception, participants made the trait inferences that the episodes were designed to elicit. At each grade level, the masculine-behaving child was seen as far more "adventurous," "daring," "unappreciative," and "rude" and far less "afraid," "appreciative," and "polite" than the feminine-behaving child. In each case, the chi-square for masculine vs. feminine behavior conditions was highly significant, and majorities, usually large ones, checked the appropriate adjectives. However, while the "lost book" vignette prompted at least 75% in each age group to view the feminine-behaving child as "panicky" and "emotional," masculine-behaving targets were seen as no more "logical" and "steady" than their feminine counterparts. Thus the masculine version of the lost book vignette failed to convey masculinity, but the feminine vignette was nonetheless distinct from it.

Liking for the Target's Behavior and for the Target

Mean liking scores, broken down by the target's behavior and gender and by the participants' age group, are presented in Table 1; Table 2 lists the significant effects in the five-variable analysis of variance for each six-point liking measure.

Insert Tables 1 and 2 about here

Steady-Emotional Episode. Children clearly preferred steadiness to emotionality, regardless of other factors, but the target's gender and behavior were both involved in complex interactions. Steadiness was somewhat more approved if it was displayed by a girl rather than a boy (5.15 vs. 4.64), while emotionality was somewhat more likeable in a boy than in a girl (2.86 vs. 2.36). Moreover, while approval of steadiness was high across age groups and sexes, reactions to feminine emotionality varied by age and sex. At 3rd-4th grade, girls were significantly more positive toward it than boys were (3.08 vs. 1.92); at 7th-8th grade, boys were more positive than girls were (3.08 vs. 2.13); and at 11th-12th grade, there was no sex difference. In short, boys were very negative toward feminine emotionality in grade school but more positive later, while girls were most negative toward it in junior high school. Analysis of the two complex interactions involving experimenter identity revealed no specific comparisons in which the target's gender was a significant influence on liking; moreover, these interactions did not qualify the significant two-way interaction between the target's gender and the target's behavior.

Adventurous-Timid Episode. While feminine timidity was generally preferred to masculine risk-taking, approval of masculine risk-taking increased from 3rd-4th grade (2.63) and 7th-8th grade (2.75) to 11th-12th grade (3.74), while liking for feminine timidity decreased after 3rd-4th grade (5.54 vs. 4.59 vs. 4.24). Approval of masculine behavior increased gradually among boys (2.25 vs. 3.27 vs. 3.67), but markedly in late adolescence among girls (2.93 vs. 2.31 vs. 3.88). Meanwhile, the decline in approval of timidity was marked after 3rd-4th grade among boys (5.92 vs. 4.33 vs. 4.17), but more gradual among girls (5.17 vs. 4.88 vs. 4.33). As a result of these shifts, preference for feminine over masculine behavior ceased to be significant by high school.

The target's gender also had impacts. The youngest children liked masculine risk-taking significantly better in a boy than in a girl, while tending to like timidity better in a girl than in a boy. Junior high school students, by contrast, showed a slight preference for risk-taking in a girl. By high school age, students clearly liked timidity in a girl better than timidity in a boy. Thus preference for sex-appropriate behavior was partially evident in both elementary school and high school, but totally absent in junior high.

Rudeness-Politeness. Preference for feminine politeness over masculine rudeness was powerful, but acceptance of rudeness increased significantly from the two younger groups (2.04) to the oldest group (3.15), while liking for politeness remained steadily high. Interactions involving experimenter identity were nonconsequential, for the effect of the target's gender was nonsignificant for each age-experimenter combination.

Overall Liking. Asked to express degree of liking for the target child after hearing all three vignettes, subjects showed their preference for the feminine-behaving children (4.75 vs. 3.65). However, the interaction between target's behavior and age group indicated that this preference was only a nonsignificant trend among 11th-12 graders, though it was significant in both younger groups. The high school students' lack of preference was due to their liking the feminine boy no more than the masculine boy; they did significantly prefer a feminine girl to a masculine girl. Indeed, an important interaction between target's gender, target's behavior, and age group emerged. At 3rd-4th grade, target gender had no significant impact, though children tended to prefer a boy who acted like a boy and a girl who acted like a girl. In 7th-8th grade, the nonsignificant tendency was to like a girl who acted like a boy and a boy who acted like a girl. Only in 11th-12th grade did target gender clearly matter: A boy who acted like a boy was liked significantly more than a girl who acted like a boy.

Masculine-Feminine Trait Inferences

Scores on the trait inference measure could range from a highly masculine typification of +12 to a highly feminine typification of -12. Inferences were, of course, shaped by the target's behavior, $F(1, 104) = 498.50$, $p < .0001$. Moreover, the absolute magnitudes of scores (4.30 for masculine targets vs. -7.10 for feminine ones) suggest that subjects were generally more willing to characterize feminine-behaving targets as feminine than to attribute masculine traits to masculine-behaving targets.

While the interaction between target behavior and subject age was significant, $F(2, 104) = 7.05$, $p < .001$, it was further qualified by a three-way interaction with experimenter identity, $F(2, 104) = 4.23$, $p < .05$. Target

gender also interacted with age and experimenter, $F(2, 104) = 4.23, p < .05$. Age-related increases in attributions of masculine traits to masculine-behaving targets were evident in the female experimenter's data from 3rd-4th grade (2.25) to 7th-8th (5.67) and 11th-12 (5.00) grades; a similar increase in attributions of feminine traits to feminine targets was nearly significant ($p < .10$). By contrast, no significant age trends were evident for the male experimenter. Leaving behavior aside, 7th-8th graders with the female experimenter attributed more feminine traits to a girl (-2.27) than to a boy (1.00). For the male experimenter, target gender had an impact only at 11th-12th grade, where, surprisingly, male targets were perceived as more feminine than female targets (-3.27 vs. -.17). A similar trend in the female experimenter's data for high school students was nonsignificant.

Memory Bias

The memory bias score potentially ranged from +6 (recollection of plausible but false masculine behaviors) to -6 (recollection of plausible but false feminine behaviors). Fewer feminine behaviors were remembered in masculine-behaving targets (.90) than in feminine-behaving ones (-3.07), $F(1, 101) = 26.09, p < .0001$. As on the trait checklist, there was more inference of femininity in feminine-behaving targets than of masculinity in masculine-behaving targets. However, target behavior interacted with sex of subject, $F(1, 101) = 7.03, p < .01$; with target gender and experimenter, $F(1, 101) = 6.42, p < .05$; and with age group and experimenter, $F(2, 101) = 4.01, p < .05$. The only significant sex of subject effect involved the tendency of boys to recollect more false masculine behaviors than girls did when exposed to a masculine-behaving child (1.30 vs. .60). As a result, the effect of target behavior, while significant in both sexes, was stronger among boys. For the female experimenter only, target gender and behavior interacted such that bias toward recollecting feminine items given a feminine-behaving child was less strong if the child was a boy than if the child was a girl (-2.30 vs. -3.41). Finally, among subjects hearing about masculine behavior from the male experimenter, false attributions of masculine acts decreased significantly with age (1.82 vs. .90 vs. .21). Memory scores for the remaining combinations of target behavior and experimenter were unaffected by age, and in all cases the effect of target behavior on memory was strong enough to be significant.

Relationships between Measures

Table 3 speaks to issues regarding the relationships between overall liking for masculine- or feminine-behaving children, trait inference, and memory bias. Clearly the three measures were unrelated among the youngest children. Among 7th-8th graders, masculine-behaving targets came to be liked more to the extent that feminine traits were attributed to them by the perceiver. By 11th-12th grade, this tendency coupled with others (e.g., the parallel tendency to like feminine-behaving targets better to the extent that they were perceived as having masculine traits) indicated stronger linkages among evaluation, trait inference, and memory bias, especially in perceptions of masculine-behaving children.

Insert Table 3 about here

Discussion

Certainly the clearest message of the present study--a message which must be viewed in the context of the manipulations employed--is that a child's behavior has far more impact on person perception in middle childhood and adolescence than does whether the child is a boy or a girl, whether he or she behaves in sex-role appropriate or sex-role inappropriate ways, and whether the perceiver is a boy or a girl. The main effect of masculine vs. feminine behavior was evident on all six dependent measures, typically being powerful enough to generalize across other variables. By comparison, the impacts of the target child's gender were minimal. There was, for example, no tendency to favor one sex over the other or to prefer same-sex children to opposite-sex children, as has been found among preschoolers (e.g., Albert & Porter, 1983). This pattern of results is consistent with evidence that sex-role stereotypes come to be viewed as flexible social conventions in later childhood (Carter & Patterson, 1982). Moreover, it is consistent with evidence that adults deploy gender schemata as a "default option" to be used primarily when individuating behavioral information is lacking (e.g., Locksley, Borgida, Brekke, & Hepburn, 1988). The primacy of behavioral information in the present study is undoubtedly related to the fact that concrete descriptions of actions in three situations rather than abstract trait labels were provided; it might not have emerged if perceivers had had little more than gender information to go on.

Within this context, however, some developmental trends were uncovered that hint that gender and sex-role behaviors have different implications for person perception at different ages. On three of the four liking measures, liking for masculine-behaving versus feminine-behaving targets changed with age, largely because high school students were more accepting of masculine risk-taking and rudeness, particularly in a boy. Increased valuing of independence and possibly nonconformity in adolescence may be responsible (c.f., Emmerich, 1974). At the same time, our data, like those of Emmerich and Shepard (1982) and Urberg (1979), point to a reemergence of concern with sex-role conformity in late adolescence. This was most apparent in liking for risk-taking versus timidity and for the target child overall. Elementary school children showed a weak preference for boys who acted like boys and girls who acted like girls; 7th-8th graders were largely unbiased but leaned, if anything, toward preferring children whose behavior was sex-role inconsistent; and 11th-12th graders proved to be the only ones for whom sex-role conformity had substantial impacts. They preferred timidity in a girl to timidity in a boy and liked the masculine-behaving child better than younger children did only when he was a boy, although their heightened tolerance of rudeness was unaffected by the target child's gender. One notes in them, then, a somewhat paradoxical blend of a return to insistence on conformity to sex roles and a valuing of freedom from social constraints.

While such developmental trends were not apparent in the trait inference and memory bias data, high school students also distinguished themselves by being the only group in which relationships between evaluation, sex-biased trait inference, and memory bias were evident. While these aspects of person perception were largely independent among younger students, 11th-12th graders liked masculine-behaving children better to the extent that they did not attribute masculine traits to them or recollect masculine behaviors in them, while liking feminine-behaving targets better when they inferred masculine traits from their behavior. In short, among high school students, liking

increased to the extent that the perceiver moderated extreme sex-role schema-driven inferences and perceived a more androgynous individual. Yet high school students were no less likely than younger subjects to make trait inferences consistent with a target's behavior. Possibly high school students, compared to younger children, were applying more abstract and generalized schemata that allowed them to move beyond the "data given," and to create coherence among their evaluative and inferential processes. This is, of course, highly speculative, but it hints of qualitative differences with age in the nature and deployment of sex-role schemata.

Certainly much remains to be learned about the implications of sex-role schemata for person perception and about the relationships between various processes in person perception over the course of development. At the least, the present study points to the value of further examination of the following issues: (1) the circumstances under which children of various ages will be influenced by knowledge of gender versus individuating behavioral information; (2) developmental changes in the links among person perception processes such as memory and evaluation; and (3) the apparent resurfacing of sex-role conformity concerns in late adolescence after the relative liberation of early adolescence. Research directed at such issues promises to clarify the social implications of growing up as a boy or a girl.

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Table 1. Mean Liking Scores by Target's Behavior and Gender
and Subject's Age Group (N = 150)

Target's Behavior Target's Gender	Masculine-Behaving		Feminine-Behaving	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Steady-Excitable				
3rd-4th	4.83	5.47	2.75	2.17
7th-8th	4.42	5.08	3.68	2.13
11th-12th	4.67	4.83	2.75	3.00
Adventurous-Timid				
3rd-4th	3.08	2.27	5.25	5.83
7th-8th	2.58	3.08	4.58	4.68
11th-12th	3.67	3.83	3.83	4.78
Rude-Polite				
3rd-4th	2.08	2.00	5.58	5.58
7th-8th	2.17	1.92	5.58	5.88
11th-12th	3.40	2.83	5.58	5.44
Overall Liking for Target				
3rd-4th	3.83	3.68	5.08	5.08
7th-8th	3.08	3.17	4.92	4.48
11th-12th	4.47	3.67	4.58	4.67

Table 2. Significant Effects on Liking Measures (1 or 2 and 113 df)

Liking Measure and Effect	F	p
Steady-Excitable		
Behavior	224.57	.0001
T's Sex X Behavior	8.68	.004
Behavior X S's Sex X Age	5.82	.004
T's Sex X S's Sex X Experimenter	4.14	.05
T's Sex X Age X Experimenter	3.24	.05
Adventurous-Timid		
Behavior	100.99	.0001
Behavior X Age	14.45	.0001
Behavior X T's Sex X Age	3.62	.03
Behavior X S's Sex X Age	4.03	.02
Behavior X S's Sex X Experimenter	8.83	.004
Rude-Polite		
Behavior	388.81	.0001
Age	4.54	.02
Behavior X Age	7.63	.001
S's Sex X Experimenter	4.14	.05
T's Sex X Age X Experimenter	5.14	.007
Overall Liking for Target Child		
Behavior	53.42	.0001
Age	4.64	.02
Behavior X Age	4.74	.02
T's Sex X Behavior X Age	3.21	.05

Table 3. Correlations between Overall Liking, Trait Inference, and
Memory Bias at Each Age

Subgroup	Liking & Traits	Liking & Memory	Traits & Memory
Masculine-Behaving Targets			
3rd-4th	-.09	.07	.08
7th-8th	-.50*	-.27	.24
11th-12th	-.69*	-.40*	.59*
Feminine-Behaving Targets			
3rd-4th	.06	.20	-.10
7th-8th	.12	-.14	.05
11th-12th	.56*	.23	.36

Note: Starred coefficients are significant at $p < .05$, and on both trait inference and memory bias measures, high scores represent masculine-biased inference and low scores feminine-biased inference.